

Math 5760/6890: Introduction to Mathematical Finance A (rather non-technical) intro to Stochastic differential equations

See Petters and Dong 2016, Sections 6.6-6.7

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Brownian motion

We have introduced Brownian motion, a stochastic process $B(t)$ having the properties:

- $P(B(t) = 0) = 1$
- B is continuous with probability 1
- The n sequential increments formed by any choice of $n + 1$ ordered time points t_1, \dots, t_{n+1} are mutually independent
- For any $0 \leq s \leq t < \infty$, then $B(t) - B(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t - s)$.
- With probability 1, the sample path $B(\cdot, \omega)$ is differentiable nowhere.
- For any interval $I \subset [0, \infty)$ of finite length, with probability 1, the sample path $B(\cdot, \omega)$ has infinite “variation” on I .
- B has Markovian structure: Fix $s > 0$ and define $A(t) := B(t + s) - B(s)$. Then $A(t)$ and $B(t)$ have the same distribution, and in particular A is a standard Brownian motion.
- Sample paths of Brownian motion are self-similar/fractals. In particular, for any $c > 0$, the process $\frac{1}{c}B(c^2t)$ is a standard Brownian motion.

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Our next goal: Stochastic calculus.

The standard way this is introduced is first to discuss stochastic integration, followed by concepts of stochastic differentiation.

Why stochastic calculus?

Calculus is the language of (instantaneous) *change* – modeling change is foundational in many fields, including finance.

Recall that an annual interest rate r results in a time $T = 1$ future value of an amount S_0 according to

$$S_1 = S_0 \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n,$$

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The more constructive way to view this result is as a differential equation:

$$S'(t) = rS(t), \quad S(0) = S_0.$$

I.e., we can write this as a calculus/differential equations problem.

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The same principles are true for our probabilistic valuation models:

- It is rather technical to understand model dependence on complicated drift and volatility for discrete-time models.
- Continuous time is a convenient standardization: it's easy to specialize a continuous-time model to discrete-time trading, but it's harder to specialize a discrete-time model to discrete-time with a different period.
- Calculus provides technical intuition: it's much easier to understand behavior of calculus models than it is to understand the corresponding behavior of discrete-time models.

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- Calculus provides technical intuition: it's much easier to understand behavior of calculus models than it is to understand the corresponding behavior of discrete-time models.
- The downside: stochastic calculus is much more technical and advanced than standard calculus.

Quadratic variation

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Definition

Let $X(t)$ and $Y(t)$ be two stochastic processes. The quadratic covariation of X_t and Y_t on the interval $[0, T]$ is the stochastic process given by,

$$[X, Y]_T := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - X_{j-1})(Y_j - Y_{j-1}), \quad X_j := X(t_j) = X\left(j\frac{T}{n}\right).$$

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There is a lot of use in understanding quadratic (co)variation, but for us the following simple fact suffices: If B is a standard Brownian motion, then

$$[B]_T = T$$

why?

$$[B]_T \approx \sum_{j=1}^n (B_{j+1} - B_j)^2$$

$$B_{j+1} - B_j \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \overset{t_{j+1} - t_j}{T/n})$$

$$\text{So } (B_{j+1} - B_j)^2 \approx T/n$$

$$\Rightarrow [B]_T \approx \sum_{j=1}^n T/n = T \quad (\text{HW})$$

The fact that

$$[B, B]_T = T$$

suggests some notation that we will use soon.

First, note that this is true for T very small, and this along with the Markovian property of B suggests that we have the approximation,

$$(B(t + \Delta t) - B(t))^2 \approx \Delta t.$$

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To emphasize that B depends on t , one typically uses a subscript:

$$(dB_t)^2 = dt.$$

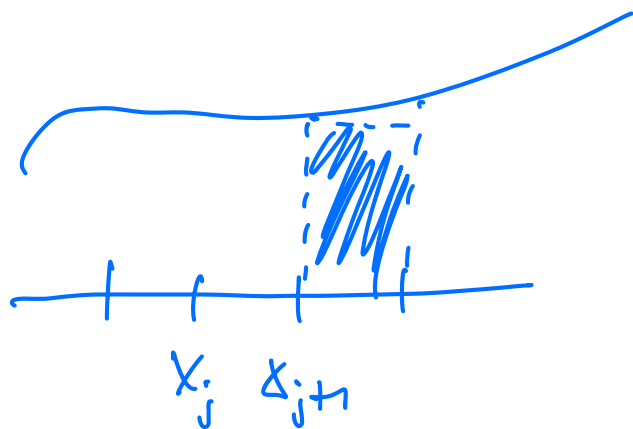
Note that for stochastic processes, subscript notation is *not* differentiation.

Stochastic integration

We can now introduce integration: our goal will be to integrate *with respect to* Brownian motion.

To gain some understanding of what this means, recall Riemann integration: if $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_{j-1})(x_j - x_{j-1}), \quad x_j := \frac{j}{n}.$$



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This also works just fine if you want to integrate with respect to a different variable:

$$u = x^2 \implies \int_0^1 f(x) du(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_{j-1})(u_j - u_{j-1}), \quad u_j := u(x_j).$$

Handwritten notes:

$$u = x^2 \implies du = 2x dx$$

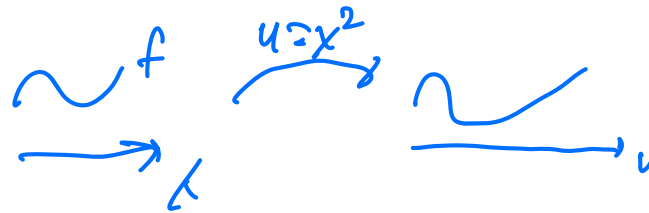
$$\int_0^1 f(x) du(x) = \int_0^1 f(x) 2x dx$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) (x_{j+1}^2 - x_j^2) = \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) (x_{j+1} + x_j) (x_{j+1} - x_j)$$

$$\approx \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) 2x_j (x_{j+1} - x_j)$$

$$\xrightarrow{n \uparrow \infty} \int_0^1 f(x) 2x dx$$

Stochastic integration



L21-S07

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This inspires the following definition, which is the cornerstone of stochastic calculus:

Definition (Itô Integral)

Let $f(t) = f_t$ be a stochastic process (possibly also a deterministic function). Then we define,

$$\int_0^T f_t dB_t := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(t_{j-1})(B(t_j) - B(t_{j-1})).$$

where B_t is a standard Brownian motion. This is called an **Itô Integral**.

Stochastic differentials

L21-S08

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Because Riemann integration statements can be written in terms of differentials, then we are tempted to use differential notation for the above expression:

$$\frac{dX_t}{dB_t} \cancel{f_t} \leftarrow dX_t = f_t dB_t \iff X_t = \int_0^T f_t dB_t$$

It is important to understand that the differential notation is just notation! The real meaning is an integral statement: a rigorous statement involving standard differentials and derivatives is not possible!

However: this is our first example of a *stochastic* differential equation (SDE).

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Example

Let B_t be a standard Brownian motion. Some direct computations involving B_t^2 allow us both to compute $\int_0^t B_t dB_t$, and to derive an SDE for B_t^2 .

$$B_t^2 = B_t^2 - B_0^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n (B_j^2 - B_{j-1}^2), \quad B_j = B(t_j), \quad t_j = t/n, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n (B_j - B_{j-1})(B_j + B_{j-1})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n (B_j - B_{j-1})(B_j - B_{j-1} + 2B_{j-1})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n (B_j - B_{j-1})^2 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^n B_{j-1} (B_j - B_{j-1})$$

$$\xrightarrow{n \uparrow \infty} [B]_t + 2 \int_0^t B_t dB_t$$

Why is $[B]_t = t$?

$$1.) \mathbb{E} \sum_{j=1}^n (B_j - B_{j-1})^2 = t$$

$$2.) \text{Var} \sum_{j=1}^n (B_j - B_{j-1})^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \uparrow \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow B_t^2 = t + 2 \int_0^t B_t dB_t$$

$$a) \int_0^t B_t dB_t = \frac{1}{2} B_t^2 - \frac{t}{2}$$

$$b) \text{ Define } X_t = B_t^2$$

$$\Rightarrow dX_t = dt + 2B_t dB_t \quad X_0 = 0 \text{ w.p. } 1$$

(SDE for B_t^2 !)

Other SDE's?


$$B_t \quad (= L_t \text{ for } \mu=0, \sigma=1)$$

$$dB_t = dB_t \quad B_t = \int_0^t dB_t$$

$$\mu \neq 0, \sigma \neq 1$$

$$L(t) = \mu t + \sigma B_t$$

$$\Rightarrow dL_t = \mu dt + \sigma dB_t$$

 Petters, Arlie O. and Xiaoying Dong (2016). *An Introduction to Mathematical Finance with Applications: Understanding and Building Financial Intuition*. Springer. ISBN: 978-1-4939-3783-7.